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ORDS & SENTENCES

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Words and Sentences

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A Review of Grammar

BY
ALFRED M. HITCHCOCK
Hartford Public High School

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PREFACE

The exercises here collected are the result of a strong conviction that just now, in these days of slovenly, lawless speech, we teachers need to say to our pupils, *Come, before it is too late let us go back to dictionary and grammar. No matter what else is left undone, we must learn to spell and pronounce common words correctly; we must learn how to construct sentences that obey the laws of syntax.*

At what point in the course may such exercises as these be introduced with profit? In most schools, it is safe to say, drill in accuracy of speech is needed every year. We have all too little of it and—this is heresy—far too much theme-writing, too much and too elaborate study of heavy classics. The foundations are neglected.

It is hardly necessary to acknowledge in detail my indebtedness to Archbishop Trench and to the recognized authorities on English grammar. A book of this sort cannot hope to be original, except, perhaps, as ingenuity may occasionally be shown in setting forth principles clearly, or in devising exercises to drive them home.

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WORDS AND SENTENCES

PART I

WORDS

I.—GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH THE DICTIONARY

The English language is made up of hundreds of thousands of words. Not all of these are in use to-day; some are found only in very old books, and still others are slowly dying. When the spinning-wheel went out of use, a small group of spinning-wheel terms slipped away because there was nothing for them to do. When the stage-coach disappeared, along with it went a little vocabulary pertaining to stage-coach things. Every important invention, we may almost say every change in fashion, retires, sometimes permanently, a few words—renders them **obsolete.**

Related in a way to obsolete words are not a few terms that are in every-day use, yet are found in some small province only. The English-speaking people

are widely scattered; and though all have the same names for most things, still each country, each section of a country, each community even, has a few words that are not found elsewhere, or if found elsewhere, then with different meanings. There are terms peculiar to the English colonies in Africa, for example. New Englanders employ a few terms that sound strange to the ear of the Southerner. **Provincialisms,** as such stay-at-home words are called, are to be found everywhere, doing good service, but in a narrow field.

Every art, trade, occupation, science has its separate vocabulary of **technical** terms. The lawyer employs many expressions that are meaningless to most of us; so too does the doctor. It is said that the student of zoölogy who reads all that has been written on this branch of science will find over one hundred thousand terms employed, comparatively few of which are in common use. Every line of manufacture, every branch of sport even, has its technical terms. They do not stay at home as do provincialisms, but each group is of special service to some one class of individuals.

A recently published dictionary defines over three hundred thousand terms, all of which, it is claimed, are in active use to-day or are to be found in books that English-speaking people may care to read. This number is amazing, especially when we bear in mind that many obsolete and provincial words and a far greater number of technical terms have been

excluded. The dictionary is even more select than this. Every day new words come into existence. When things are discovered or invented, they must be named. How many terms associated with steam and electricity were unknown a century ago! Exploration, trade, manufacture, science, all are contributing each year a large number of new words. But not all these find their way at once into the dictionary. They must first be tried, passed about from mouth to mouth for a time, experimented with, till it is reasonably sure that they are really needed.

Not only is the dictionary cautious in accepting **newly coined** words, as they are called; it is careful, though perhaps not sufficiently so, about admitting many expressions commonly heard on the street or wherever people talk loosely—words that are exceedingly coarse and vulgar, others that are what we know as slang. Such **colloquial** or **loose** expressions are seldom found in print. They dwell on the outskirts of respectability, unfit to appear in good society; or we may think of them as vagrants. Occasionally a word of this sort works its way out of the slums of speech and at last gains admittance to the dictionary; yet where one succeeds in living down its low origin, hundreds remain but mouth-words, without respectability. Most of them live but a short time.

The immensity of the English language, even when we exclude the relatively unimportant groups of words just considered—the **obsolete,** the **provincial,**

the **technical,** the **newly coined,** the **colloquial** or **loose**—is difficult to realize, except as one compares it with his own scant vocabulary. Shakespeare, we are told, used at least fifteen thousand different words, Milton eight thousand. The average man of to-day, it is estimated, employs about five thousand. But how about you? How much of the English language do you possess? In a way, it is all yours; in a truer sense, no one really owns a word till he has mastered it—can pronounce it, spell it, and knows precisely what it means. If you were to attempt to make a dictionary and record in it simply the words you have thoroughly mastered, the words which you really own, what would be the result?

Fortunately no one will ever set a task so unreasonable. Every schoolboy knows that his vocabulary is a small one, that he misspells, mispronounces, misuses many of the terms he commonly employs. It is no disgrace to be young; most of the blunders, careless mistakes which fall from the lips of schoolboys and schoolgirls, or slip from their pens in writing letters, are pardonable. Yet a time should come, and usually does come, when the average youth begins to feel ashamed when he blunders in his speech. He wants to put away childish errors. He prefers not to misspell, mispronounce, and misuse words. Perhaps someone has laughed at him for spelling *college* with a *d*, or for pronouncing *gentlemen* as if it were spelled *genlemun*, or for writing *Mary's voice was edible as far as the corner*, or for closing a letter

with *Yours respectively.* It is not pleasant to be laughed at.

Reforming one's speech, however, is not an easy matter. Many of the words found in the youth's vocabulary have been picked up by the ear, on the street, on the playground; the eye may never have seen them in the printed page. And many words are so commonly mispronounced, or indistinctly uttered, or improperly employed, that the ear does not receive what is correct. Other terms are acquired from reading; but the young reader rushes along so rapidly that the eye merely glances at words and does not hesitate to skip whatever looks difficult in the way of long or strange expressions. In this most natural manner the mind receives many words which have been imperfectly seen; the memory is crowded with wrong or indistinct impressions. It is indeed difficult, where so much needs correcting, to determine where and how to begin. Here are a few simple suggestions.

First, be convinced that the undertaking is worth while. Every word mastered is a word owned; it is so much power. We need all the power we can get, in this busy age. A large vocabulary may not be required for the work you are to do, but a fully mastered vocabulary is necessary. Mistakes in speech are costly; they cause delays and misunderstandings. Have too a little pride in the matter. Incorrect speech is the badge of illiteracy.

Second, be more careful about what you read and

how you read. Form the habit of reading aloud ten minutes every day, scanning each word closely, pronouncing distinctly, bringing out clearly the meaning of each sentence. No book is better for this kind of drill than the Bible, but any good book will do, or even the daily newspaper. Memorize a short poem, now and then, or a paragraph of vigorous prose. The purpose of exercise of this sort is to train the eye and the ear and the tongue to do their work more carefully.

Third, take pains to use language correctly when talking and writing. Break yourself of the habit of careless expression. The little training received in school will amount to nothing, if you permit yourself to abuse language when you are on the street or at home. Correct expression comes through habit. Keep in training all the time.

Finally, try to become interested in words; learn to respect them. Studying coins or stamps is not a foolish fad, neither is collecting picture postals; but words are more interesting than coins or stamps or postals, and are better worth studying. *On the Study of Words*, by Archbishop Trench, though written years ago, is a most delightful book for present-day readers. *Words and their Ways in English Speech*, by Greenough and Kittredge, a more recent work, contains many interesting chapters. But the best book of all is the dictionary itself. By all means own a good one and learn how to use it.

Looked at in one way, the dictionary is a vast

collection of condensed compositions, each telling all that the average person needs to know about some word: how it is spelled and pronounced, and what are its meanings. Frequently a quotation containing the word properly used will be given; and sometimes a group of synonyms, or terms which have nearly the same meaning. The dictionary does more than this. Whenever possible, it tells the life-story of a word—where it came from, what it meant originally; for many words change in meaning from age to age, just as a person's character changes during his lifetime.

But there is another way of regarding the dictionary. It is a great law book. Ours is a free country, yet we are not free to do as we please. We must endure, for the common good, restraint of many kinds. Words are free; but when we misuse them we become law-breakers. One has no more right to abuse or misuse his country's language than he has to destroy his neighbor's property. The dictionary, stern book, lays down laws regarding spelling, pronunciation, meanings, which word-respecting people obey.

Form the habit, then, of consulting a good, unabridged dictionary. See what the law says about this and that term which you are using commonly, yet with a suspicion that you may be using it improperly. Lay down the book you are reading, now and then, and look up the meaning of some new word. If an expression has an odd sound to your ear, and you find yourself wondering where it came from, how it got its present meaning, turn to the dictionary.

Perhaps it will tell you precisely what you wish to know. Practice of this kind soon becomes fascinating, for words are wonderful when studied.

EXERCISES

I. Reread Chapter One to see if it does not contain a few words about whose meanings you are uncertain. Before consulting the dictionary, try to reason out for yourself what each word must mean.

II. Open the dictionary at random and select an interesting word. Give, in complete sentences, all the information the dictionary supplies concerning it.

III. Without consulting a dictionary, try to discover how the following terms became a part of the English language: *grunt, hiss, mew, snarl, twitter, whiz, click, chatter, chirp, crackle.* What other words of this sort can you suggest?

IV. The following are representatives of a class of words which have come into the language in an interesting way. Try to discover their origin, consulting for this purpose an unabridged dictionary. *Italics, canary, champagne, meander, worsted, cologne, copper, atlas, herculean, tantalize, martial, phaeton, volcano, cereal, panic, macadam, guy, babel, tawdry, quixotic, bedlam, lynch, mackintosh, gingham, damask, dimity, dollar, calico, cambric, boycott, derrick, artesian, guillotine, pullman, pompadour, dunce, namby-pamby, colossal.*

V. Nearly one-third of our language is, directly or indirectly, of Latin origin; but every nation has contributed a few terms. Where did each of the following

originate? First guess, then consult the dictionary. *Wigwam, potato, tea, candy, yacht, sabbath, soprano, adieu, postscript, telephone, chess, snob, perk, lad, bungalow, mosquito, tulip, ambassador, daisy, czar, canoe, physics, minister, crag, dairy.*

VI. Often words become doubly interesting when their derivation is known. *Thimble,* for example, comes from an old Anglo-Saxon word *thuma* meaning *thumb.* Was the thimble once worn on the thumb? *Squirrel* is from a Greek word meaning *shadow-tail.* So a squirrel is an animal that casts a shadow with its tail? Look up the derivation of the following: *Emma, Margaret, silly, lunatic, cranberry, miser, witch, cunning, salary, style, indent, pope, curfew, linen, acrobat, villain, sophomore, dandelion, buxom.*

VII. Sometimes the full force of a word is not appreciated until its derivation is known. *Dilapidated,* for example, is from a Latin word *lapis* meaning a *stone,* and the prefix *dis* meaning *apart.* Knowing this, the word presents to the mind a picture of a stone building tumbled down. Consulting a good dictionary, try to discover the original meaning of the following: *December, manuscript, bisect, phonograph, quadruped, bicycle, Florida, subterranean, centennial, accumulate, manufacture, error, eradicate, circus, valedictory, alderman, journey, neighbor, arduous, wealth, mayor, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.*

VIII. The first ten words in the group below are Saxon; the rest are Norman-French. At one time the Saxons and the Normans lived side by side in England. Which were the conquerors and which the conquered people? *Scepter, throne, royalty, court, castle, prince,*

palace, treasurer, hall, duke; spade, rake, scythe, rye, oats, house, home, hearth.

IX. Explain the meaning of the following terms as applied to words: *obsolete, provincial, technical, newly coined, slang, colloquial.* Try to think of examples of each kind. You will find in the Bible many words no longer used in common speech. Strictly speaking, however, they are not obsolete, but *archaic.* Archaic means out of fashion but still understood. If you have a friend who has at some time lived in a distant part of the country, you will notice, probably, that he has in his vocabulary a few provincial expressions.

II.—PRONUNCIATION

Clear enunciation does not make a gentleman, but it is a sign of good breeding. Educated people, refined, courteous people, those who respect language and are thoughtful of the comfort of others, try to speak distinctly and correctly. They consider it ill-mannered, when reading aloud or talking, to mumble their words, misplace accents, clip syllables, or otherwise abuse language.

Mispronunciation is due principally to carelessness. We know how most of the commoner words should be pronounced, but we are slaves to habit—the habit of reading and talking too rapidly. Ruskin, a great English essayist, once said, "If you read ten pages of a good book, letter by letter, that is to say, with real accuracy, you are for evermore in some measure an educated person." This kind of careful reading, the eye noting every syllable, every letter, must form the basis of all serious effort to learn how to pronounce. But the ear must help the eye, intently listening when those whom it is safe to imitate are reading aloud or talking. And the vocal organs must be trained to

obey; for it is one thing to know how a given word should be pronounced, and quite another thing to be able to pronounce it. Training the eye, the ear, and the tongue to take pains: that is the secret of the whole matter.

The following exercises are exceedingly simple. Their purpose is to call attention to a few of the many words commonly mispronounced. To run through them once or twice will accomplish little; they call for repeated practice, day after day.

EXERCISES

I. Pronounce the following, making sure that the accent falls where it should. If in doubt, consult a good dictionary.

Address, recess, discourse, influence, express, illustrate, character, finance, mischievous, deficit, precedence, precedent, mustache, romance, herculean, exquisite, alloy, alias, combatant, reputable, infamous, condolence, caricature, comparable, interesting, incomparable, disreputable, formidable, gondola, chastisement, clandestine, irremediable, hyperbole, idea.

II. In careless speech *perhaps* becomes *praps, usually* contracts into *usally.* All the words in the following group suffer from this kind of abuse. Pronounce carefully, giving each syllable due attention.

General, several, personal, temperance, regular, reasonable, laboratory, difference, singular, perhaps, calculate, usually, naturally, governor, original, parenthesis, incidentally, superintendent, delivery, enthusiasm, miserable,

reverend, bravery, machinery, battery, restaurant, sentinel, military, curiosity, cardinal, artistically, boisterous, illiterate, miniature, vulnerable, sarsaparilla, poem.

III. *Ath el etics, sawr, drownded,* and *naow* are common mispronunciations of *athletics, saw, drowned,* and *now.* Occasionally a silent letter is sounded, as in *often* and *herb.* Be careful not to make mistakes of this sort when pronouncing the following words:

Brethren, draw, business, down, often, height, umbrella, sword, cow, Wales, spasm, saw, salmon, found, herb, house, ought, athletics, soda, straw, intellect, law, mountain, how, persevere, caught, column, drowned, drama, complainant, spasm, extra, thought, soften.

IV. *Punkin* and *cunnin* are common mispronunciations of *pumpkin* and *cunning.* Pay especial attention to consonants when pronouncing the following words:

Fact, government, perfect, speaking, quarter, orphan, connect, including, arctic, particular, adjacent, pumpkin, partridge, expect, leaving, except, extract, February, inferring, anarchy, instinct, recognize, tract, anything, recognition, attract, cunning, subtract, reading, object, doing, accept, Harvard.

V. Pronounce, taking pains to give full value to the vowel in each final syllable. Do not turn *object* into *objict,* nor *judgment* into *judgmunt.*

Providence, statement, sentiment, professor, benevolence, gentlemen, object, similar, amusement, admittance, government, regular, parliament, difference, reverend, singular, independent, rudiments, audience, prominent, reverence, restaurant, vehement, countrymen, irrelevant, judgment, disconsolate, argument, jurymen, extravagance, battlement, accomplishment, accident, intemperance.

VI. *Italian* should not be pronounced as if spelled *Eyetalian*, nor *American* as if it were *Amurican*. Pay particular attention to all the vowels in this group of words:

Foreigner, nominate, get, educate, rather, visible, American, capability, candidate, animal, complication, Coliseum, engine, yet, Italian, solemn, definition, ceremony, genuine, separate, barbarism, clemency, representative.

VII. Give the vowel *o* its full sound. Do not substitute the sound of some other letter. Do not insert the letter *r*.

Innocent, eloquent, society, swallow, accommodate, composition, provide, tomatoes, mosquito, diagonal, professor, fellow, oyster, proposition, mountain, decoration, apologize, chocolate, borrow, apoplexy, sorrow, sonorous, introduction, potatoes, piano, process, cow.

VIII. Perhaps no vowel is more commonly mispronounced than *u*. Seldom should it be given the sound of *oo* as in the word *boot*.

Blue, student, truth, tube, Tuesday, duke, gratitude, suit, stupid, produce, tutor, tune, dutiful, attitude, avenue, destitute, stimulate, rudiments, picture, educate, genuine, institute, speculate, juice, natural, occupy, durable, argument, altitude, culinary, figure, cruel.

IX. The vowel *a* represents a number of different sounds. Are you sure that you pronounce the following words correctly?

Ask, half, gape, catch, can't, parent, haunt, laugh, chaste, launch, extra, calf, path, psalm, patent, calm, because, father, vaunt, alternate,

X. *Th, ngth, sph,* and similar combinations are difficult for some tongues. Master the following:

Length, depths, Thursday, sphere, strength, thousand, drouth, diphthong, architecture, naphtha, twelfth, chasm, drought, eighth, trough, eleventh, thought, architect.

XI. Each word in this group presents some difficulty. When in doubt, do not guess; consult a dictionary.

Amateur, juvenile, victuals, debris, bestial, viscount, fiancé, docile, deaf, epitome, cayenne, detour, suite, leisure, odious, courtesy, irrelevant, hundred, decrepit, column, again, sesame, sergeant, pantomime, forehead, tedious, chimney, coffee, clapboard, creek, enmity, immediate, representative, apron, spoon.

XII. The following are selected from the preceding groups. Pronounce them slowly and with distinct enunciation. Go through the list again and again; master each word.

Tuesday, February, Italian, American, pumpkin, quarter, psalm, governor, solemn, illustrate, strength, laboratory, character, stupid, Arctic, government, detour, fellow, several, often, rather, influence, discourse, forehead, Wales, laugh, drowned, swallow, height, length, gentlemen, ridiculous, sentiment, willing, deaf, intellect, sword, superintendent, fiancé, recess, engine, sphere, tract, catch, object, professor, avenue, saw, column, partridge, architect, interesting, decorous, debris, chimney, suite, twelfth, miserable, romance, difference, potatoes, pantomime, produce, creek, hundred, umbrella, genuine, subject, temperance, mischievous, address, express, athletics, recognize, patent, illustrate, mustache, gratitude, student, juvenile, speaking, gape, coffee.

XIII. Make a list of words you have discovered, through your study of the preceding exercises, that you have been unconsciously mispronouncing.

XIV. Make a list of words you hear commonly mispronounced by your associates.

XV. Write, as if to a child, a fifteen-line paragraph explaining the dictionary's way of indicating the correct pronunciation of words. This is a difficult task; do it well.

III.—WORD-BUILDING AND SPELLING

Horse and *shoe*, when combined, form the compound *horseshoe*. Add the suffix *ness* to the adjective *good* and we have the noun *goodness*. *Regain* is but the word *gain* plus a prefix. In *returnable*, three elements are discoverable, a simple word, a prefix, and a suffix; in *ungentlemanly* there are four elements. Even a superficial examination of the dictionary reveals the fact that comparatively few words are simple; that there are scores of prefixes, scores of suffixes, by means of which our language multiplies.

The words examined in the paragraph above are readily analyzed; a glance shows how they are put together. But analysis is not always so simple. Words adopted from a foreign language do not, as a rule, retain their original form; only the vital part of each—the root or the stem, as it is called—is retained. *Jacere*, for example, is a foreign word meaning *to throw*. Its root is *ject*, as seen in *interjection*. Without some familiarity with foreign languages, it is not always easy to detect word-roots. Many prefixes too are from languages other than our own. Some

are so commonly employed that we recognize them readily enough and know what they mean; yet occasionally one is so changed in the process of joining it smoothly to a root that to determine where the prefix ends and the root begins is not a simple matter.

So many words are of Latin derivation—our ponderous dictionary would shrink at least one-third if they were all dropped from it—that some educators believe the best way to master English is to master Latin first. Whether this indirect method is best or not, it is for several reasons an exceedingly good one. Those who are unable or unwilling to adopt it should at least master the more commonly employed Latin prefixes. For frequently a prefix furnishes a hint of what the word it introduces means, and sometimes it throws the door wide open, revealing at once the entire secret. Familiarity with the Latin prefixes also helps one to spell correctly. A large proportion of words commonly misspelled are of Latin origin. The trouble lies in the joint, where the prefix is neatly attached to the root. If one knows the prefixes thoroughly and understands word-joinery, there is little danger of tripping; a moment's thought will tell what the spelling must be.

Ab or **abs** signifies **from.** *Norma* is the Latin word for *rule*; hence the English word *normal*, meaning *according to rule* or *natural*. *Abnormal*, then, means *away from the rule* or *unnatural*. *Abstract* is made up of *abs* and the root of a Latin word meaning *to draw*; hence to *abstract* is to *draw from*.

abduct	abhor	abdicate	abolition
absolute	abrupt	absent	abstain

Ante signifies **before.** This prefix is seen in *antedate* and *antecedent.* Sometimes it changes to *anti*, as in *anticipate.* There is a Greek prefix *anti* meaning *against.* It is seen in *antislavery* and *antidote.* An *antidote* is something given to counteract or work against a poison or a disease.

anterior	anteroom	anticipation	antique
antediluvian	antiquity	antiquary	antechamber

Circum signifies **about** or **around.** It is found in but few words and is easily recognized.

circumference	circumnavigate	circumspect
circumvent	circumlocution	circumscribe

De signifies **from** or **down.** *Caput* is Latin for *head*; *decapitate*, then, means *behead* or *take the head from the body.* *Deposit* is made up of *de* meaning *down* and a Latin word signifying to *place* or to *put.*

degrade	deform	debate	deliberate
detest	deflect	debar	delirium
deduce	decrease	demerit	declivity
decamp	decay	defect	degrade

Inter signifies **between, together,** or **among.** It is easily recognized and presents no difficulties.

interval	interlude	interregnum
interweave	international	interpose

intercollegiate	interfere	interrupt
intermediate	interview	intersect
interchange	interlace	intermission

Non signifies **not.** It presents no difficulties.

nonsense	non-combatant	nondescript
nonconformity	nonentity	nonpareil
	noncommittal	non-resident

Per signifies **through** or **by.**

perforate	perpetual	percent	perusal
perpetrate	permeate	persevere	perennial
persecute	perspire	permission	perspective

Post signifies **behind** or **after.**

posterior	postscript	postgraduate	posthumous
postpone	posterity	postlude	post-mortem

Pre signifies **before.** *Judicium* is a Latin word meaning judgment. A *prejudice,* then, is a judgment formed without careful examination. *Pre* is a very useful prefix, appearing in a great many words.

prelude	preamble	prefix	prepaid
preface	preposition	presage	premature
precede	precaution	precipitate	preliminary
predominate	prehistoric	premium	predecessor
precept	premeditate	precocious	president

Pro signifies **forward, before,** or **instead of.** *Videre* is the infinitive form of a Latin word meaning *to see.*

To *provide*, then, is to *look ahead* or *make ready for what is to come*. A great many words contain this useful prefix.

proceed	prologue	prostrate	promise
procession	program	promote	professor
protect	protrude	promenade	proclaim
project	product	prosecute	pronoun

Re signifies **back** or **again,** and appears in a multitude of words.

rebate	recollect	retail	reiterate
recess	reconcile	reduce	remember
remunerate	repeal	resign	reply
retract	revenge	retreat	reflect

Se signifies **apart.** It appears in but few words.

secede	seclude	secret	secrete
select	separate	seduce	secretion

Super signifies **above.** It presents no difficulties.

superb	superlative	superficial
superintend	superstructure	superstition
superfluous	supernumerary	

Trans or **tran** signifies **across, beyond,** or **through.**

transfer	trans-Atlantic	transient	transpose
transplant	translate	transform	transact
transparent	translucent	transom	transgression

The fourteen prefixes considered thus far are simpler than the six to be examined next, in that they are unchangeable. *Re* remains *re* and *se* remains *se*, no matter to what root they may be joined. This is not true of the following:

Ad signifies **to.** It is recognized at once in *adhere* and *adjacent*. In many words, however, *ad* changes to *ab*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *ar*, *as*, or *at*, before *b*, *f*, *g*, *l*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *s*, and *t*. That is, for the sake of ease in pronunciation the final letter of the prefix changes to the first letter of the stem. Words containing *ad* in a disguised form are misspelled frequently. The troublesome ones, it will be seen, contain the double consonant. It is almost safe, when in doubt, to double the consonant.

abbreviate	application	admission	affluence
accent	arrogant	affection	attempt
affix	assert	accompany	appearance
alliteration	attend	attribute	apparatus
annihilate	adapt	arrive	array

Con signifies **with** or **together.** Other forms of this suffix are *com*, *col*, *cor*, and *co*. *Col* is found before stems beginning with *l*, *cor* before stems beginning with *r*, *com* before *m*, *con* before *n*. *Com* and *col* appear before other letters too, but not in words one is inclined to misspell; so when in doubt, it is safe to double the consonant. Carefully note the spelling of the following. Observe, too, how strong the idea of *with* or *together* is in most of the words.

convene	connect	combine	commerce
conference	concrete	compete	corrupt
conspire	concord	compare	correspond
continent	complex	command	collide
co-education	cohere	conspire	collection

Dis usually signifies **apart,** though sometimes it has the force of a negative. *Dif* and *di*, other forms of *dis*, are found in a few words. There is a temptation to substitute *diss* for *dis* in *disappear* and all other words in which the root begins with *a*. The opposite tendency is seen when the root begins with *s*, as in *dissatisfy*. Most words introduced by *dis* are familiar; a moment's thought is all that is necessary to determine the root, and this once determined, the correct spelling becomes obvious.

disability	dissect	dissolve	discomfort
disadvantage	dissemble	dissuade	digress
disapprove	dissent	discharge	dilute
disappoint	dissimilar	disengage	difficulty
disallow	dissipate	disjoin	diffident

Ex signifies **out, off,** or **beyond. E** and **ef** are other forms. Words introduced by *ex* present few difficulties; there is no temptation to double the final letter. *E* and *ef* are sometimes troublesome because the Latin stems they introduce are unfamiliar; or because we forget that *ex* changes to *ef* before a stem

beginning with *f*. Note with care the first eleven words below:

efface	emigrant	elapse	explain
effect	emissary	excavate	explode
effeminate	enervate	excellent	export
effervescent	eloquent	excursion	express
effort	elocution	exhaust	extort

In signifies **in, into,** or **not, without.** It is exceedingly common, and exceedingly troublesome to poor spellers, who forget, or do not know, that *in* changes to *il*, *im*, *ir*, before *l*, *m*, *r*. Study the following words faithfully, first noting the form of the prefix, then determining the significance of the prefix.

illegible	immaterial	irrational	infuse
illiterate	immediate	irreducible	innovation
illiberal	immense	irregular	inoculate
illogical	immigrant	irreligious	inquisitive
illumine	immoral	irresolute	inhale
illustrate	immunity	irreverence	inherit

Sub signifies **under.** It changes to *suc*, *suf*, *sug sum*, *sup*, *sur*, before *c*, *f*, *g*, *m*, *p*, and *r*. Let the poor speller remember this double consonant arrangement; it will save him many slips.

success	surreptitious	subcontract	suppress
suffix	summary	subscribe	suppose
suggest	support	subdivide	suburb
suffer	subconscious	subjugate	suffice

In the following table the prefixes are, for convenient reference, arranged alphabetically.

Ab (abs)	signifies	from.
Ad (ab, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at)	"	to.
Ante	"	before.
Circum	"	about, around.
Con (co, col, com, cor)	"	with or together.
De	"	from or down.
Dis (di, dif)	"	apart or not.
Ex	"	out, off, or beyond.
In (il, im, ir)	"	in, into, or not, without.
Inter	"	between, together, or among.
Non	"	not.
Per	"	through or by.
Post	"	behind or after.
Pre	"	before.
Pro	"	forward, before, or instead of.
Re	"	back or again.
Se	"	apart.
Sub (suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur)	"	under.
Super	"	above.
Trans (tran)	"	across, beyond, or through.

Suffixes, more numerous than prefixes, and fully as useful, appear in so many of our commonest words that their significance is learned almost unconsciously. It will not do to pass them by, however, without noting certain rules which tell how suffixes are joined to stems. These rules should be learned.

Final silent *e* is kept before an added syllable beginning with a consonant, and dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel; but words ending in *ce* or *ge* retain the *e* before *a* and *o*. Words ending in *ie* drop the *e* and change the *i* to *y* before *ing*.

Love+ly makes *lovely*, *love+able* makes *lovable*. *Change+able* makes *changeable* and *service+able* makes *serviceable;* otherwise there would be a temptation to give *g* and *c* the hard sound as in *rang* and *cup*. *Tie+ing* makes *tying*. The *e* is dropped, since it is final silent *e*, and *i* changes to *y* to prevent the doubling of *i*. *Singeing* and *dyeing* retain the *e* to distinguish them from *singing* and *dying*. *Truly*, *duly*, *shoeing*, *hoeing*, *toeing*, *awful*, *argument*, and *judgment* are other exceptions to the rule.

hoping	advertisement	subduing	amazement
excitement	infringement	advantageous	traceable
salable	tying	engagement	blamable
peaceable	tasty	coming	conceivable
movable	spongy	dining	dying

Words ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the consonant before an added syllable beginning with a vowel, if the word formed

is to be accented on the syllable preceding the suffix; otherwise the consonant is not doubled.

This rule, like the preceding one, is to prevent mispronunciation. *Hop+ing* makes *hopping*. If the consonant were not doubled, we should have no way of distinguishing it from *hoping*, a very different word.

goddess	deference	occurrence	usually
literally	baggage	redden	permitting
deferred	slipped	planned	nutting
preference	beginning	beginner	gripping
preferring	stopped	swimming	compelling

When preceded by a consonant, final *y* is generally changed to *i* before an added syllable not beginning with *i*; otherwise it remains unchanged.

Holy+day makes *holiday*, and *plenty+ful* makes *plentiful*; but *joy+ful* makes *joyful*, and *toy+ing* makes *toying*. There are a few exceptions to the rule, among them being *shy*, *sly*, and *dry*, which retain the *y* before *ness* and *ly*; but these we are not apt to misspell.

pitiful	volleying	modifying	compliance
denying	modifier	defiance	joyous

EXERCISES

I. Without referring to the table, explain the significance of each of the following: *ab, ad, ante, circum, con, de, dis, ex, in, inter.*

II. Explain the significance of each of the following: *non, per, post, pre, pro, re, se, sub, super, trans.*

III. Without referring to any book, write down all the words you can think of which contain the prefix *ab* in any of its forms. Do the same with each of the twenty prefixes. (This may be made a class contest.)

IV. What prefixes appear in the following words? Give the original form of each. *Apparel, commence, illegible, suppress, attribute, alliteration, aggregate, supply, immigrant, communicate, irreligious, illiterate, suffix.*

V. In which of the following words has the prefix the force of *in* or *into,* and in which has it the force of *not* or *without*? *Illogical, illuminate, imbibe, impediment, irregular, immigrant, involuntary, insomnia, inspiration, inoculate, insane, inquisitive, independent, infamy, indebted, incendiary.*

VI. Open the dictionary at random and note how many words containing Latin prefixes there are on a single page. Do the same with a column from the editorial page of any newspaper. Do the same with a page from a magazine.

VII. *Ceive* and *cept* are roots from a Latin word meaning *to take.* Form as many words as you can by adding prefixes and suffixes.

VIII. *Cede, ceed,* and *cess* are roots meaning *to go* or *to yield.* Form from these roots as many words as you can.

IX. In the same manner form words from the roots *duc* and *duct,* which are from a Latin word meaning *to lead.*

X. *Fect* is from a Latin word meaning *to do* or *to make.* Form words from it.

XI. *Ject* is from a Latin word meaning *to throw.* Form words from it.

XII. *Junct* is from a Latin word meaning *to join.* Form words from it.

XIII. *Mit* and *miss* are roots meaning *to send.* Form words from them.

XIV. *Pon* and *posit* are roots meaning *to place.* Form words from them.

XV. *Tract* means *to draw.* Form words from it.

XVI. State the rule for adding syllables to words ending in silent *e.*

XVII. State the rule for adding syllables to words ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel.

XVIII. State the rule for adding syllables to words ending in *y.*

XIX. Give the rule governing each of the words in the list below.

dying	goddess	subduing	deference
pitiful	serviceable	advantageous	purity
preference	shammed	lying	hungriest
truly	hoeing	shying	judgment

XX. Study with great care the spelling of the following words, paying particular attention to prefixes. With what letter does the stem of each word begin?

dissect	opponent	appoint	immediately
effervescent	disappear	aggregate	affirm
emergency	misspell	correspondent	addict
emigrant	immense	access	accidentally
accuracy	disagree	describe	ascertain
disobedience	adjacent	apparatus	dissimilar
irregular	suppress	effeminate	interrupt

XXI. The following are troublesome because of their suffixes, in each case there being a temptation to use a wrong ending. Master them.

affirmative	visible	forcible	dictionary
spherical	bachelor	connotative	audible
contemptible	conservative	coincidence	identical
experience	popular	comparatively	obedience
burglar	infinite	spontaneous	purity
imperative	penitentiary	independence	resistance
participle	secretary	correspondent	conspirator

XXII. Words containing the diphthongs *ei* and *ie* are troublesome until one learns that **when the diphthong has the sound of long *e*, *i* comes first except when the diphthong is preceded by *c*.** *Weird, seize, neither,* and *leisure* are important exceptions. With this rule in mind, study the following words:

yield	niece	receive	conceive
shrieve	perceive	fiend	pierce
receipt	deceit	shriek	wield
relieve	besiege	achieve	apiece

XXIII. The following are commonly misspelled because commonly mispronounced. Are you sure that you are accustomed to pronounce them correctly?

embroidery	recognize	ransacking	artistically
tournament	sophomore	athletics	cemetery
quarter	temperament	cartridge	farthest
intellect	laboratory	lightning	literally
strategy	tragedy	tremendous	accidentally

XXIV. The following, frequently misspelled, are very simple when analyzed. Often a long word is but a

short, familiar word to which prefix and suffix have been added. A moment's thought should clear away all difficulty.

recollect	preparation	imagination	incidentally
agreeableness	recommend	undoubtedly	handsome
narrative	criticism	ridgepole	condescend
sensibility	miraculous	graphically	analysis

XXV. Here are groups of words arranged in pairs. Put each pair into a sentence or two so constructed as to show without doubt that you know what each word means.

admission	affect	allusion	ascent
admittance	effect	illusion	assent
altar	bare	berth	brake
alter	bear	birth	break
breath	bridal	calendar	canon
breathe	bridle	calender	cannon
canvas	capital	ceiling	cereal
canvass	capitol	sealing	serial
cession	chandelier	cite	clothes
session	chanticleer	site	cloths
coarser	colonel	complement	conservatory
courser	kernel	compliment	observatory
council	creak	currant	deceased
counsel	creek	current	diseased
desert	dual	dyeing	eligible
dessert	duel	dying	legible

emerge	emigrant	fain	faint
immerge	immigrant	feign	feint
feat	formally	fort	forth
fete	formerly	forte	fourth
gait	gilt	grease	hail
gate	guilt	Greece	hale
heal	hew	humerus	lead
heel	hue	humorous	led
leaf	lightening	lose	mantel
lief	lightning	loose	mantle
meat	medal	miner	partition
mete	meddle	minor	petition
peace	peal	pedal	persecute
piece	peel	peddle	prosecute
pillar	prescribe	principal	prodigy
pillow	proscribe	principle	progeny
prophecy	real	respectfully	ring
prophesy	reel	respectively	wring
role	sewer	shear	sleight
roll	sower	sheer	slight
soar	stake	stationary	statue
sore	steak	stationery	statute
stile	tail	team	waist
style	tale	teem	waste

XXVI. Here is a final list of words, some of which we have already examined, calling for careful study. Analyze them syllable by syllable. Master them once for all.

pronunciation
apparent
imitate
around
control
together
altogether
beseech
vegetable
rummage
variegated
similar
artillery

belligerent
divine
arriving
muscle
brilliant
speech
equip
business
surprise
galloped
melancholy
privilege
divide

prejudice
among
salary
dissolve
arrange
proceed
mysterious
whether
gas
separate
professor
announce
appetite

rhythm
sleeve
across
sovereign
essential
precede
expel
hospital
grammar
luscious
callous
exaggerate
drowned
soliloquy

catarrh
malady
caterpillar
embarrass
acquisition
villain
terrestrial
undoubtedly
writer
twelfth
syllable
abolish
nymph
accommodate

color
difficult
excel
restaurant
pamphlet
accord
allow
agreeable
acquaintance
burglary
until
parliament
college
consonant

persevere
academy
career
reverend
agree
paradise
odor
duchess
noticeable
pursue
commencement
negotiate
marriage

committee
sympathy
repetition
warrior
annex
opportunity
drudgery
amateur
assassin
literary
millionaire
remedy
bereave

possess
finally
artificial
annual
messenger
career
resurrect
achieve
graphically
barbarous
shepherd
accustomed
sergeant

accordingly
milliner
gasoline
image
Italy
incandescent
fiery
describe
necessity
crescent
approach
phase

collapse
feminine
cylinder
physical
discipline
genius
implement
crystal
kerosene
different
coincide
etiquette

fascinate
discourtesy
disapprove
hypocrisy
trespass
appeal
haggard
enemy
complexion
dissipate
unanimous
all right

PART II

A BRIEF REVIEW OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Words are but feeble things except when properly arranged in groups and set to work. They resemble in this respect the parts of a machine, a typewriter for instance, which must be assembled with care, each part properly fitted in its place, before the machine becomes serviceable. The dictionary, which we may call first of the great law-books of language, considers words singly, telling what each one means, how it should be spelled, how pronounced. Grammar, correctly speaking, includes all, or nearly all, that the average dictionary contains. As the term is commonly employed, however, the special province of grammar is to record what is good usage among language-respecting people as regards words when grouped for service—what forms they take and how they are arranged. It may well be called the second great law-book. The following review is much too brief to be complete. It touches but lightly upon many things and passes by others

altogether, the purpose being merely to freshen the memory in regard to such matters as are of real importance to one who is trying to learn to speak and write correctly.

The simplest complete word-group, it will be recalled, is the sentence, with its two vital parts, subject and predicate. The former names that concerning which the sentence tells something; the latter is the part which does the telling. There are four kinds of sentences: the declarative, used in making an assertion; the interrogative, used in asking a question; the imperative, used in entreating, commanding, and in giving directions; the exclamatory, used in expressing deep feeling.

Declarative: The tide has turned.

Interrogative: Has the tide turned?

Imperative: Seek the truth.

Exclamatory: How gallantly they ride!

Another set of names is used to indicate the structure of sentences. If made up of one subject and one predicate, a sentence is called simple. If made up of two or more independent clauses, it is called compound. A sentence made up of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses is called complex. Compound-complex is a name applied to a sentence made up of independent clauses one or more of which are complex. By clause, as used in the above definitions, is meant a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and forming part of a sentence. It differs from a phrase, which is a

group of related words that does not contain subject and predicate. It resembles a phrase in that it is often used as if it were a single word.

Phrase: in the morning

Clause: where I had determined to spend the night

Simple sentence: We reached the village.

Compound sentence: The stars fade and dawn appears.

Complex sentence: In the evening we reached the village where I had determined to spend the night.

Compound-complex sentence: We discovered that we had forgotten the packet and Pierre was sent for it.

Thus we have the following display:

Sentences	Purpose	Declarative	making an assertion
		Interrogative	asking a question
		Imperative	commanding, directing, or entreating
		Exclamatory	expressing deep feeling
	Structure	Simple	having but one subject and one predicate
		Compound	made up of two or more independent clauses
		Complex	containing one or more dependent clauses

There are eight kinds of words: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. It should be remembered, however, that just as upon occasion a lawyer may become a lecturer, or a schoolboy a fisherman, so a given word may be now one "part of speech", now

another. What a word is doing determines what it should be called. If used to name something, it is a noun. If used as a substitute for a noun, it is a pronoun. Nouns and pronouns, indeed all words or word-groups used like nouns, are called substantives. A verb is a word or phrase used to assert something concerning that which a substantive names or designates. Adjectives are words used to modify the meaning of substantives, and adverbs are words used to modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adjectives and adverbs, and all words or word-groups used like adjectives or adverbs, are called modifiers. Prepositions connect substantives with other words and show how they are related; conjunctions join words, phrases, or clauses. Prepositions and conjunctions, and other parts of speech when used like them, are called connectives. An interjection is a word—a cry or an exclamation—used to express deep feeling. These definitions are not in every instance complete; but they serve sufficiently well to point out in a general way the service performed by each part of speech.

Noun: The *day* is done.

Pronoun: *They* run.

Verb: The birds *have flown.*

Adjective: A *soft* answer turneth away wrath.

Adverb: The sentinel walked *softly.*

Preposition: Two *of* the ships were lost.

Conjunction: Come *and* trip it *as* ye go.

Interjection: *Alas!*

Thus we have the following display:

Parts of Speech	Nouns	words used as names
	Pronouns	words used as substitutes for nouns
	Verbs	words used in making assertions
	Adjectives	words used to modify substantives
	Adverbs	words used to modify verbs, adjectives, adverbs
	Prepositions	words used to connect substantives with other words and show how they are related
	Conjunctions	words used to connect words, phrases, clauses
	Interjections	cries and exclamations used to express deep feeling

Studying this table for a moment, one cannot fail to see that the various parts of speech enjoy but little independence; they must work together just as the individuals of a community must; all are needed, none is self-sufficient. Nouns are helpless without verbs, and verbs helpless without nouns. Pronouns, great time-savers that enable us to take short cuts, and to push ahead without too often retracing steps, are meaningless when by themselves. Adjectives and adverbs must have something to cling to, other words to work for; and connectives, when by themselves, are like mortar without bricks, bridges without banks to join, or signboards where there are no cross-ways. Interjections, of all the parts of speech, enjoy a degree of lonely independence; yet a page of interjections and nothing else would be unintelligible. The *Oh! Alas!* or *Mercy!* means nothing until some

complete sentence explains what has produced the emotion represented by the exclamation.

In the second place it may be noted that though no word is wholly independent, the eight parts of speech are of different value or rank; which suggests again a parallel between words and individuals. The noun is easily the most important, in numbers as well as in service. If we could have but this one part of speech we should manage somehow, though lamely, without the other seven. Next comes the verb, without which there could be no complete sentence. A workaday world might get along fairly well with these two parts of speech alone. Adjectives and adverbs are plainly inferior to nouns and verbs, and the connectives are of a still lower order; yet vigor, precision, and beauty of expression depend so largely on a command of these minor groups of words that they are entitled to our full respect and merit close study. The relative importance of each part of speech may be tested in an interesting way by taking a paragraph from any book and removing from it in turn the nouns, the pronouns, and so on.

Finally comes the thought that though there is no such thing as independence among words, and though some parts of speech may be considered of higher rank than others, nevertheless each term in the language enjoys a kind of supremacy, each is a specialist doing some one thing better than it can be done by any other.

Interjections and prepositions do not change in

form, nor can they be subdivided into classes or varieties according to the service they perform. Other parts of speech may be subdivided, and with the exception of the conjunction they may be "inflected" more or less; that is, they may be bent into this or that shape to express shades of meaning and to show the relationship of word to word, much as some machines may be "adjusted" to perform different kinds of work. For example, *boys* is an inflected form of *boy*, and *worked* an inflected form of *work*. Centuries ago, our language was much more highly inflected than it is to-day. Many forms have dropped out of use, and others are gradually disappearing. Yet the shades of meaning and the relationships they once expressed still remain, and often the names of these are retained even though the inflected forms are gone. We will now take up each part of speech separately, considering its subdivisions, its inflections, and the service it performs.

- Nouns
  - Kinds: common, proper
  - Forms
    - number: singular, plural
    - gender: masculine, feminine, neuter
    - case: nominative, possessive, objective
  - How used: (1) subject of verb, (2) object of verb, (3) indirect object of verb, (4) object of preposition, (5) denoting possession, (6) appositive to a substantive, (7) predicate nominative, (8) nominative absolute, (9) nominative by address, (10) adverbial objective

A common noun is a name which may be applied to any one of an entire class of things; a proper noun

designates a particular one, distinguishing it from others of the same class. Illiterate people sometimes fail to begin the proper noun with a capital, and frequently begin with a capital a word, especially the name of a plant or an animal, with which they are not familiar. *Dog* is a common noun; so too is *ichthyosaurus*, notwithstanding the fact that it has many syllables and sounds strange to the ear.

The regular way of forming the plural is by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, observation rather than hard and fast rules teaching which ending is correct in a given case. It is well to remember, however, that nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* to *i* and add *es*; that a few, though not all, words ending in *fe* change the *f* to *v* and add *s*; and that a few, though not all, ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es*. Foreign words are troublesome in that many of them have plural endings not found in our language. The oddest rule is that which bids us indicate the plural of figures, letters, and signs by adding *'s*. (See exercise VI on page 72.)

pony	ponies	valley	valleys
knife	knives	potato	potatoes
vertebra	vertebræ	6	6's
t	t's	+	+'s

Few nouns have separate forms to indicate difference in gender; but that which a word names may have gender, so we may speak of nouns as masculine, feminine, and neuter. It is somewhat the same with case as it is with gender. One form now suffices for

both nominative and objective; the only inflection is that which denotes what is loosely called possession. The regular way of forming the possessive is by adding *'s* to the singular and to all plurals not ending in *s*. Plurals ending in *s* add the apostrophe only. When a noun of more than one syllable ends in an *s* or *z* sound, some writers prefer to indicate the singular possessive by adding simply the apostrophe; others, and they are to be commended, follow the regular rule. *Ulysses's voyages, Xerxes's exercises,* and similar phrases have an unpleasant sound. Perhaps the sanest way is to avoid such ugly combinations by writing *the voyages of Ulysses* and *the exercises of Xerxes.* If two or more nouns joined by *and* show joint possession, as in the sentence *This is John and Henry's boat,* the sign of possession is needed with the last noun only; but we write correctly *This is either John's or Henry's,* and *This is neither John's nor Henry's.* (See exercise VII on page 72.)

man's	mens'	Dickens's masterpiece
lady's	ladies'	The deeds of Themistocles

Brown and Green's harness shop (joint possession)

Goldsmith's and Burns's poems (separate possession)

Is this Monday's or Tuesday's Tribune?

It is neither Monday's nor Tuesday's.

The ways in which nouns are used will be better understood later on when the other parts of speech have been examined. Since this is a review of grammar, the following examples should not prove

wholly unintelligible. The numbers correspond to those found in the table on page 41.

1. *Fire* burns. 2. Obey the *law*. 3. They offered *Cæsar* a crown. 4. He lives in *Savannah*. 5. Great Expectations is the title of one of *Dickens's* best novels. 6. We followed the Ohio River, a *branch* of the Mississippi. 7. This is my native *land*. 8. The *day* being clear, we had an extended view. 9. In thee, O *Lord*, do I put my trust. 10. Good-bye, proud world, I'm going *home*.

- Pronouns
  - Kinds
    - Personal: I, you, thou, he, she, it; myself, yourself, etc.
    - Relative or Conjunctive: who, which, what, that; whoever, whosoever, etc.
    - Demonstrative: this, that
    - Interrogative: who, which, what, whether
    - Indefinite or Adjective: each, either, neither, some, any, many, few, all, both, aught, naught, one, some one, any one, every one, no one, such other, each other, one another
  - Forms
    - Person: first, second, third
    - Number: singular, plural
    - Gender: masculine, feminine, neuter
    - Case: nominative, possessive, objective
  - How used: (1) To take the place of the noun, serving in all save the last of the ten ways mentioned in connection with nouns; (2) to take the place of a noun and at the same time serve as a connective (relative pronouns only)

Personal pronouns, so called because some always represent the "first" person or the one speaking,

others the "second" person or the one spoken to, and others the "third" person or the person or thing spoken of, are so commonly misused that it seems best to give their inflections in full.

	Sing.	Plu.	Sing.	Plu.
Nom.	I	we	you	you
Pos.	my or mine	our or ours	you or yours	your or yours
Obj.	me	us	you	you

Nom.	thou	ye	he	she	it	they
Pos.	thy or thine	your or yours	his (or hers)	her	its	their or theirs
Obj.	thee	you	him	her	it	them

	Singular				
Nom.	myself	thyself or yourself	himself	herself	itself
Pos.	—	—	—	—	—
Obj.	myself	thyself or yourself	himself	herself	itself

	Plural		
Nom.	ourselves	yourselves	themselves
Pos.	—	—	—
Obj.	ourselves	yourselves	themselves

Notice that there are no such forms as *ourn*, *youer*, *yourn*, *hisn*, *hern*, *theirn*, *theirselves*, *itsself*, and that in no form is the apostrophe used. *You're*, a contracted form of *you are*, is often confused with *your*.

The relative pronouns are so called because they "relate" or refer to substantives. Since at the same time they introduce clauses, thus serving as connectives, they are also called conjunctive pronouns. Of all the conjunctives, *who* alone is inflected.

	Sing.	Plu.
Nom.	who	who
Pos.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	whom

Notice that there is no such form as *whoes* or *whos*. *Who's* is a contracted form of *who is*.

The interrogatives, so called because used in asking questions, are not inflected, with the exception of *who*, which differs in no respect from the relative *who*.

The demonstratives *this* and *that*, with their plural forms *these* and *those*, direct attention to persons or things, pointing them out. Be careful not to use the personal pronoun as if it were a demonstrative. *Look at them boys* should be *Look at those boys*. Remember too that *these* and *those* are plural forms, while *sort* and *kind* are singular. *These kind*, *those sort*, and similar vulgarisms are very common.

The indefinites, so called because they do not definitely represent particular persons or things, are a low order of pronoun, more often used as adjectives. Indeed, many pronouns do double duty, serving now as pronouns, now as adjectives; and we have seen that relative pronouns serve as conjunctions. This leads to confusion, which disappears only when we apply to a word in a given sentence the name which best describes the service it performs in that sentence.

In the first group of sentences given below, the pronouns are used like nouns, serving as subject, object, etc., the numbers corresponding to those in the noun table. Notice that the pronoun is not used as an adverbial objective. In the second group, the pronouns take the place of nouns and at the same time serve as connectives.

1. *This* is the forest primeval. 2. Take *it*, if you wish. 3. Please give *him* my cane. 4. May we go with *him*? 5. *My* courage weakens, and so, I suspect, does *yours*. 6. A few fortunate ones, *those* who had clear records in deportment, were permitted to go. 7. This is *he*. 8. *This* having been attended to, we retired for the night. 9. Go to the ant, *thou* sluggard.

1. Let him *who* standeth take heed lest he fall. 2. This is the malt *that* lay in the house *that* Jack built.

- Adjectives
  - Kinds
    - limiting
      - articles: a, an, the
      - numerals: one, two, first, second, etc.
      - pronominals: my, thy, his, her, its; this, that; which, what; each, every, either, neither, some, any, many, few, all, both, other
    - descriptive
      - common
      - proper
  - Forms: positive, comparative, superlative
  - How used: To modify substantives attributively, appositively, and predicatively

Adjectives present few difficulties, except as they change to indicate degrees of comparison. In some cases degree is indicated by an entire change of word, as in *good, better, best*; in others *-er* and *-est* are added to the positive form, as in *sweet, sweeter, sweetest*; and in still others the comparative and the superlative are indicated by placing *more* and *most* or *less*

and *least* before the adjective. No rule covers all cases; what is right must be learned through observation. Uneducated people sometimes forget that a proper adjective—that is, an adjective derived from a proper noun, as *Roman* derived from the proper noun *Rome*—should begin with a capital. The distinction between a pronoun and a pronominal adjective is not troublesome if we remember that the adjective always modifies a substantive.

Pronoun: *This* is my book.

Adjective: *This* book belongs to me.

The three ways in which an adjective may be used —perhaps we should say four ways, since an adjective is sometimes used as a noun—are here illustrated.

1. The *green* fields invite us. 2. The crowd, *heedless*, rushed into danger. 3. The fields are *green*. 4. The *wicked* shall perish.

- Verbs
  - Kinds
    1. Transitive, intransitive
    2. Strong conjugation, weak conjugation
  - Forms
    - Voice: active, passive
    - Mood: indicative, subjunctive, potential, imperative
    - Tense: present, past, future, perfect, past perfect, future perfect
    - Person: first, second, third
    - Number: singular, plural
    - Verbals: infinitives, participles
  - How used: (1) To form the essential part of the predicate; (2) to serve as a substantive (infinitive); (3) to serve as an adjective (participle)

The verb is a difficult part of speech to master. Very few—perhaps it is safe to say not more than one in a hundred—ever do master it. Grammarians cannot agree perfectly on all points relating to it, and they differ widely in regard to the names which should be applied to its various forms and relations. We shall try, without going too deeply into matters, to get hold of such essentials as are needed in order to talk about verbs intelligibly and use them with a reasonable degree of correctness.

A verb is used transitively when it requires an object to complete its meaning; that is, when it requires a substantive to "receive its action", as in the sentence *Jack built a house.* A verb is used intransitively when it does not require an object, as in the sentence *The sun shines.* Some verbs are always used intransitively, others may be used either way. (See exercise XIII on page 78.)

Verbs are said to be of the strong or the weak conjugation according to the way they are inflected. Weak verbs regularly add *d* or *ed* to the root to form the past tense and the past participle. Strong verbs regularly change the vowel of the root, either in the past tense or in the past participle or in both, and sometimes add *n* or *en* to form the past participle.

Weak conjugation: work, worked, worked.

Strong conjugation: speak, spoke, spoken.

Many verbs, both strong and weak, are inflected more or less irregularly, and some irregularities are

so misleading that it is often difficult to tell what conjugation a verb belongs to even though its principal parts, as the present, past, and past participle forms are called, are familiar to us. It is a comfort to reflect that knowing the principal parts of a verb is of more importance than being able to tell to what conjugation it belongs. (See exercise X on page 76.)

Perhaps the best way to get at the many difficulties presented by voice, mood, and tense will be to display a complete verb. Pronouns will be used for the purpose of showing the various forms called for by subjects in the first, second, and third person, singular and plural; for a verb "agrees" with its subject in person and number. It should be remembered that the pronoun is not a part of the verb.

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Form	Emphatic Form	Progressive Form
	PRESENT	
I love	I do love	I am loving
you love *or* thou lovest *	you do love *or* thou dost love	you are loving *or* thou art loving
he loves	he does love *or* he doth love	he is loving
we love	we do love	we are loving
you love	you do love	you are loving
they love	they do love	they are loving

* The older forms for the second person are given in the present and past tenses only, though they are found in other tenses as well.

PAST

I loved	I did love	I was loving
you loved *or* thou lovedst	you did love *or* thou didst love	you were loving *or* thou wast loving
he loved	he did love	he was loving
we loved	we did love	we were loving
you loved	you did love	you were loving
they loved	they did love	they were loving

SIMPLE FUTURE

I shall love	I shall be loving
you will love	you will be loving
he will love	he will be loving
we shall love	we shall be loving
you will love	you will be loving
they will love	they will be loving

VOLITIONAL FUTURE

I will love	I will be loving
you shall love	you shall be loving
he shall love	he shall be loving
we will love	we will be loving
you shall love	you shall be loving
they shall love	they shall be loving

PERFECT

I have loved	I have been loving
you have loved	you have been loving
he has loved	he has been loving
we have loved	we have been loving
you have loved	you have been loving
they have loved	they have been loving

PAST PERFECT

I had loved	I had been loving
you had loved	you had been loving
he had loved	he had been loving
we had loved	we had been loving
you had loved	you had been loving
they had loved	they had been loving

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have loved	I shall have been loving
you will have loved	you will have been loving
he will have loved	he will have been loving
we shall have loved	we shall have been loving
you will have loved	you will have been loving
they will have loved	they will have been loving

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Simple Form	Emphatic Form	Progressive Form
PRESENT		
(if) I, you, he love	(if) I, you, he do love	(if) I, you, he be loving
(if) we, you, they love	(if) we, you, they do love	(if) we, you, they be loving
PAST		
(if) I, you, he loved	(if) I, you, he, did love	(if) I, you, he were loving
(if) we, you, they loved	(if) we, you, they did love	(if) we, you, they were loving

POTENTIAL MOOD

Simple Form	Progressive Form
PRESENT	
I, you, he may * love	I, you, he may be loving
we, you, they may love	we, you, they may be loving
PAST	
I, you, he might † love	I, you, he might be loving
we, you, they might love	we, you, they might be loving
PERFECT	
I, you, he may * have loved	I, you, he may have been loving
we, you, they may have loved	we, you, they may have been loving
PAST PERFECT	
I, you, he might † have loved	I, you, he might have been loving
we, you, they might have loved	we, you, they might have been loving

* *Can* and *must* are other potential auxiliaries.

† *Could*, *would*, and *should* are other auxiliaries.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT

love — do love — be loving

INFINITIVES

PRESENT

to love, loving — to be loving

PERFECT

to have loved, having loved — to have been loving

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

loving

PERFECT

having loved — having been loving

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Form	Progressive Form
PRESENT	
I am loved	I am being loved
you are loved	you are being loved
he is loved	he is being loved
we are loved	we are being loved
you are loved	you are being loved
they are loved	they are being loved
PAST	
I was loved	I was being loved
you were loved	you were being loved
he was loved	he was being loved
we were loved	we were being loved
you were loved	you were being loved
they were loved	they were being loved

SIMPLE FUTURE

I shall be loved

VOLITIONAL FUTURE

I will be loved

PERFECT

I have been loved

PAST PERFECT

I had been loved

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT

(if) I be loved

PAST

(if) I were loved (if) I were being loved

POTENTIAL MOOD

PRESENT

I may be loved

PAST

I might be loved

PERFECT

I may have been loved

PAST PERFECT

I might have been loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT

be loved

INFINITIVES

PRESENT

to be loved, being loved

PERFECT

to have been loved, having been loved

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

being loved

PAST

loved

PERFECT

having been loved

As we study this display, we note first of all that though the verb has a few inflections—*loves*, *loved*, *loving*—its conjugation is made up largely of phrases in which *am*, *have*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, etc., appear. These words, verbs all of them, are called auxiliaries, because they are used principally in combination with other verbs, helping to express various shades of meaning. It is good mental exercise to dissect a long phrase like *may have been loving* and try to determine what each word does toward completing the idea; but ordinarily it is better for the young student to think of the phrase as if it were all a single word. (See exercise XII on page 77.)

The indicative mood is used in plain, straightaway assertion and question. It presents no difficulties except in two tenses, the past and the future, and these must be examined with great care.

Was is singular, *were* is plural. It is therefore incorrect to write *They was all present*, *We was pleased to see him*; for the verb should agree with its subject in number. But note that nowhere is *was* found in the second person singular. It is *you were loving* and not *you was loving*, *you were being loved* and not *you was being loved*. It is odd that the plural form *were* should be used with the singular pronoun *you*, but it is so used by those who speak correctly. Those who say *you was* instead of *you were* belong, as a rule, to the large, unfortunate class who use *aint* and *haint* for *am not* and *haven't*. *Aint* and *haint* are forms unknown to grammar.

Shall and *will* are troublesome because each performs a double service, sometimes indicating plain futurity and sometimes volition, or an act of the will. They cease to give trouble when the meaning of the words futurity and volition is clearly understood and a few simple rules have been mastered. When one says *I shall be twenty to-morrow*, or *Friday will be the thirteenth*, he does not mean that he is determined to be twenty on the morrow, or that he promises to make Friday the thirteenth, for these are matters over which he has no control; he simply states a future certainty. On the other hand *I will give you a dollar for your knife* is a promise; and *He shall suffer for this* is a threat or the expression of a determination. Promises, threats, resolves, and the like, are acts of the will; they come under the general term volition. Three rules cover nearly all troublesome cases:

I. To express a simple future, use *shall* with the first person, *will* with the second and the third.

II. To express volition, use *will* with the first person, *shall* with the second and the third.

III. In an interrogative sentence, use *shall* with the first person always. With the second person and the third use *shall* when *shall* is expected in the answer and *will* when *will* is expected in the answer. (See exercises XVI and XVII on pages 79 and 80.)

The subjunctive mood is used most commonly in conditional clauses to imply that the contrary of that which is stated is true, as in the sentence *If to-day*

were to-morrow, we should know all about it. It is also used sometimes to express a wish, as in the sentence *O that I were home!* But the subjunctive mood has almost disappeared from our common speech. The idea of extreme doubt, supposition, condition contrary to fact, etc., remains, but it is no longer expressed by a separate system of forms such as we have in the indicative mood. The indicative and potential forms, helped out not a little by the conjunctions *if, though, unless, except, lest,* and *whether,* now do most of the work formerly done by the subjunctive. Little attention, therefore, need be paid to this mood, except in a single case where it still performs an important service. Notice carefully the indicative and subjunctive past tense progressive forms of the verb *love:*

Indicative

I was loving	we were loving
you were loving	you were loving
he was loving	they were loving

Subjunctive

if I were loving	if we were loving
if you were loving	if you were loving
if he were loving	if they were loving

The *if* is not a part of the verb; it appears in connection with the subjunctive merely because some such conjunction is frequently, though not always, used with that mood. It may be used with the indicative too; but *if I was loving* and *if I were loving* do not mean the same thing. The former expresses

a simple condition in past time; the latter has nothing to do with past time, but sets forth a state of affairs contrary to fact or merely thought of. Note the following sentences:

> If the day was pleasant, they must have enjoyed the drive.
>
> If the day were pleasant, they might enjoy the drive.

In the first sentence the speaker tells simply what must have happened under a given condition. The sentence has to do with past time. It does not suppose something which is not true; it is a pure conditional sentence. In the second there is an element of make-believe. The day, we know at once, is not pleasant, but the speaker imagines what might happen were the day different. The sentence has nothing to do with past time. The rule covering the use of the two moods in the past tense is as follows:

Use the past tense of the indicative to express simple condition in past time. Use the past tense of the subjunctive to express the idea of uncertainty, extreme doubt, or condition contrary to fact in present time. (See exercise XV on page 79.)

Potential is a term, old-fashioned and very much too narrow but still convenient, applied by some to all verb phrases containing the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, auxiliaries which help the verbs they accompany to express a variety of ideas such as obligation, power, possibility, liberty.

Many grammarians believe that there is no potential mood and that the so-called potentials are indicatives and subjunctives. It is of more importance that we learn to use *may*, *can*, and the rest of the auxiliaries correctly than it is that we settle this disputed point.

May, *can*, *would*, and *should* are the four auxiliaries most commonly misused. *Can* denotes ability to do. *May* sometimes denotes a wish, as in the sentence *May you have a pleasant journey*; and sometimes possibility, as in the sentence *It may rain*; and sometimes permission, as in the sentence *You may go now*. The point to be remembered is this:

***Can* denotes ability to do; *may* denotes permission.** Hence *You can go* means *You are able to go; You may go* means *I give you permission to go.* (See exercise XIX on page 81.)

Should is sometimes used to express the idea of duty or obligation, and *would* to express the idea of accustomed action, as in the sentences *We should be just to our enemies* and *We would hear the swallows chattering in the big chimney whenever the mother bird brought food.* But they are used also like *shall* and *will* and in a general way follow the same rules, *should* corresponding to *shall*, and *would* to *will*. This is seen when a sentence in direct discourse is turned into indirect discourse. *He said, "I shall be home to-morrow"* becomes *He said that he should be home to-morrow. He said, "I will help pay for the boat"* becomes *He said he would help pay for the boat.* In a conditional clause, *should* is used with all three per-

sons to express futurity and *would* with all three persons to express volition; but in the principal clause of a conditional sentence, *should* and *would* follow the rules for *shall* and *will*.

Simple future: If he should call, I *should* be glad to see him.

Volition: If he should need money, I *would* send him a draft.

All this is quite puzzling; but we may simplify matters a little by remembering two rules which cover nearly all troublesome cases:

I. In indirect discourse use *should* where *shall* would be used in direct discourse; use *would* where *will* would be used in direct discourse.

II. In the principal clause of a conditional sentence, use *should* with the first person and *would* with the second and third persons to express simple future. Use *would* with the first person and *should* with the second and third persons to express volitional future.

(See exercise XVIII on page 81.)

Infinitives are verb forms that are used like nouns, and participles are verb forms that are used like adjectives. They retain the essential idea of the verb from which they are derived; like verbs they have voice and tense; and they may be modified as verbs are modified, and may govern the objective case. At the same time they have the force of nouns and adjectives.

The verb always forms the principal part of the predicate, stating or asking something concerning the

substantive which serves as its subject. The principal ways in which infinitives and participles are used are illustrated below. Note that while the infinitive commonly serves as a substantive, the substantive idea is lacking in the last three examples in the first group. The last sentence in the second group shows the participle in what is called the absolute construction.

1. *To give* is more blessed than to receive. 2. Ask him *to wait* for us. 3. I purchased this before *seeing* the others. 4. Winning a battle is not always *gaining* what one desires. 5. It is never too late *to mend*. 6. We went to the beach *to gather* driftwood. 7. It was a victory *to be proud* of. 8. I am glad *to hear* such good news.

1. There is a familiar adage about *whistling* girls. 2. I left him *standing* by the road. 3. The dog, *barking* furiously, soon frightened them away. 4. *Having sung* till we could sing no more, we covered up the embers and prepared for bed. 5. The bell *having rung*, we formed in line.

- Adverbs
  - Kinds
    - Simple
    - Conjunctive: hence, how, however, now, so, then, thence, when, whence, where, whither, why, etc.
    - Expletive: there
    - Responsives: yes, no
  - Forms: positive, comparative, superlative
  - How used: To modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; to serve as conjunctions

Adverbs are easily recognized, especially the simple ones indicating time, place, motion, manner, etc. A few are compared like adjectives.

much, more, most
soon, sooner, soonest
quickly, more quickly, most quickly

Conjunctive adverbs are so called because they introduce subordinate clauses much as relative pronouns do, at the same time serving as modifiers.

Where have they gone?
They have gone *where* we cannot follow.

In the first sentence, *where* is plainly an adverb. In the second, it serves not only as an adverb but as a conjunction joining *They have gone* and *we cannot follow*; hence it is a conjunctive adverb. The expletive *there*, seen in such sentences as *There was mounting in hot haste*, is so called because it "fills out". Since it stands first, oftentimes, where we naturally expect to find the subject, it is frequently mistaken for the subject and made to govern the verb. Thus we have such errors as *There was four of us*; for the thoughtless person assumes that the expletive must be singular and so should be followed by a verb in the singular number. *Yes* and *no*, almost always used independently, are not, strictly speaking, adverbs at all, since they modify nothing.

The following sentences show how adverbs are used:

1. Go *quietly*. 2. What could be *more* beautiful! 3. She sleeps *most* soundly now. 4. He

will come *when* we are ready. 5. *There* are many reasons why we should go. 6. *Yes*, let us be patient.

Prepositions
- Kinds: All of the same kind
- Forms: No changes in form
- How used: To connect words and show the relation between them

Prepositions form but a small group, a hundred or so, not more than fifty or sixty of which are in common use. All are of the same kind, do the same thing; they introduce phrases, connecting substantives with other words and showing the relationship between them. The object of a preposition is in the objective case. When a prepositional phrase modifies a substantive, it is called an adjective phrase; when it is used like an adverb, it is called an adverbial phrase. (See exercise III on page 68.)

Adjective: He wore a badge *of blue ribbon.*

Adverbial: They will come *in the morning.*

Conjunctions
- Kinds: Coördinate, subordinate
- Forms: No changes in form
- How used: To connect words, phrases, clauses.

Conjunctions differ from prepositions in that the former are usually employed to connect clauses, while the latter are always employed to connect single words. When a conjunction is used to connect single words, the words are in the same construction; that is, they are used alike, are of the same rank.

The two words joined by a preposition are always of unequal rank:

The house *and* the barn were burned.

The hay was stored *in* the barn.

In the first sentence *house* and *barn* are in the same construction; that is, both are subjects of the same verb. *Was stored* and *barn*, in the second sentence, are in different constructions; *barn* modifies *was stored* adverbially. It is not difficult, therefore, to tell whether a given connective is a preposition or a conjunction; but it is sometimes puzzling to tell whether a conjunction is coördinate or subordinate. Coördinate conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses which have the same grammatical relation; that is, are in the same construction. Subordinate conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses, and are found, therefore, in complex sentences only. There are three kinds of subordinate or dependent clauses: adjective, adverbial, noun. If one can learn to recognize these three kinds, he should have no difficulty in distinguishing between the two kinds of conjunctions. A noun clause is used like a noun, an adjective clause is used like an adjective, and an adverbial clause is used like an adverb. The first three illustrations given below contain subordinate conjunctions introducing noun clauses, the remaining ones contain subordinate conjunctions introducing adjective and adverbial clauses.

1. *That the steamship is lost* is beyond all question. 2. They report *that the steamship is*

lost. 3. It all depends on *where the steamship went ashore.* 4. The steamship struck *while the passengers were at dinner.* 5. *If it had not been foggy,* the accident would not have happened. 6. Do unto others *as you would have them do unto you.* 7. Return to the place *whence you came.* 8. There was a time *when we could have escaped.*

All connectives—prepositions, relative pronouns, simple conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs—are exceedingly important in that they bind together the various parts of a sentence. (See exercises IV and XXI on pages 69 and 82.)

Selecting items here and there from the preceding paragraphs, combining and condensing them, we have the following summary concerning how words are used in the building of sentences:

I. Every sentence must have a subject and a predicate, the former naming that concerning which something is asserted or some question asked, the latter asserting or asking something concerning that which the subject names. The vital part of the predicate is always a verb. The vital part of the subject is always a noun or some word or word-group that is used like a noun.

II. The meaning of a verb may be modified (1) by a noun or pronoun objective, (2) by a predicate noun or adjective qualifying the subject of the verb, (3) by an adverb, an adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause. The meaning of a noun may be changed (1) by an adjective, (2) by a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, (3) by a phrase or a clause. An adjective may be modified by an adverb, an adverb by another adverb.

Several of the rules governing person, number, gender, and case have been given or implied in earlier paragraphs. Supplementing these we have the following:

I. **The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.**

II. **A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.**

III. **A noun or pronoun the object, direct or indirect, of a verb is in the objective case.**

IV. **A predicate noun or pronoun agrees in case with the subject it qualifies.**

V. **A word in apposition with another word agrees with it in case.**

VI. **A noun or pronoun governed by a preposition is in the objective case.**

VII. **A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.**

VIII. **A noun or pronoun with an appositive adjective or its equivalent is sometimes used in the nominative case absolutely.**

EXERCISES

I. Point out the subject of each sentence. If the subject is made up of more than one word, analyze it, showing how the bare subject is expanded. How many kinds of modifiers do you find?

1. Clouds will intervene. 2. Honor and shame from no condition rise. 3. A pleasing countenance is a silent recommendation. 4. A fool's bolt is soon shot. 5. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. 6. What cannot be cured must be endured. 7. He who arrives first at the mill should first have his grist. 8. To be poor without being free is the worst state into which man can fall. 9. In the lexicon of youth, which fate reserves for a bright manhood, there is no such word as fail. 10. It is better to fall from the window than from the roof. 11. Count not your chickens before they are hatched. 12. Avarice, mother of all wickedness, always thirsty for more, opens wide her jaws for gold.

13. The Sunflower, thinking 'twas for him foul shame
To nap by daylight, strove t'excuse the blame;
It was not sleep that made him nod, he said,
But too great weight and largeness of his head.
—*Cowley.*

II. Point out the predicate of each sentence. If the verb is modified, analyze the predicate, showing how it

is expanded. How many kinds of modifiers do you find?

1. Time flies. 2. Make haste slowly. 3. Light gains make a heavy purse. 4. A thing of beauty is a joy forever. 5. At night all cats are gray. 6. Strike while the iron is hot. 7. Give us this day our daily bread. 8. Young folks tell what they do, old ones what they have done, and fools what they intend to do. 9. A soft answer turneth away wrath; but grievous words stir up anger. 10. A bad workman always quarrels with his tools. 11. When the fox is asleep, nothing falls into his mouth. 12. All is not gold that glitters.

13. When beechen buds begin to swell,
And woods the bluebird's warble know,
The yellow violet's modest bell
Peeps from the last year's leaves below.
—*Bryant.*

III. Point out the phrases and tell what each one modifies. Analyze each phrase. How many kinds do you find?

1. A hare is not caught by a drum. 2. Look not a gift-horse in the mouth. 3. It is necessary to wait for the lame man. 4. A sparrow in the hand is better than a goose in the wing. 5. Unto the pure all things are pure. 6. Burning the candle at both ends is folly. 7. To be or not to be—that is the question. 8. It is more blessed to give than to receive. 9. He who follows two hares is sure to catch neither. 10. We all have sufficient strength to bear the misfortunes of others. 11. Frightening a bird is not the way to catch it. 12. It is great folly to think of being wise alone. 13. Please ask

him to remain a minute. 14. By following the trail we easily found the cabin. 15. I do not enjoy being left alone. 16. The brook, winding in and out, at length reaches the river. 17. All hope having been abandoned, the boat was allowed to drift. 18. Having been warned of their danger, the girls turned back. 19. The snow, sweeping across the open fields, piled high against the cabin. 20. Many a tale is lost in telling.

21. And then there was a little isle
Which in my very face did smile,
The only one in view;
A small green isle, it seemed no more,
Scarce broader than my dungeon door,
But in it there were three tall trees,
And o'er it blew the mountain breeze,
And by it there were waters flowing,
And on it there were young flowers growing
Of gentle breath and hue.—*Byron.*

IV. Point out and analyze each clause. Which ones are subordinate? Which of the subordinate clauses are substantive? adjective? adverbial?

1. Adversity makes men and prosperity makes monsters. 2. He who has good health is rich, though he may not know it. 3. What is well done is twice done. 4. Go where glory waits. 5. Ask what ye will and it shall be granted. 6. Honor the old, instruct the young, consult the wise, and bear with the foolish. 7. He that gathereth in summer is a wise son; but he that sleepeth in harvest is a son that causeth shame. 8. If the sky falls, we shall catch larks. 9. One does not always know who may be trusted. 10. Tell me what you read

and I will tell you what you are. 11. All philosophy, says Epictetus, lies in the two words sustain and abstain. 12. We must expect to work for what we get. 13. Where no wood is, there the fire goeth out. 14. Much may be made of a Scotchman, Johnson once remarked, if he be caught young. 15. Make hay while the sun shines. 16. Keep thy shop and thy shop will keep thee. 17. Let another man praise thee, and not thine own mouth; a stranger, and not thine own lips.

18. For of all sad words of tongue or pen,
The saddest are these: "It might have been."
—*Whittier.*

19. Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
"This is my own—my native land!"—*Scott.*

V. Attention has been called to the fact that many words are used now as one part of speech, now as another. Note carefully each italicized word in the sentences below. What duty does it perform? What part of speech is it? What other part of speech may it be at times?

1. *Good, quickly, with, or, himself,* and *laughed* are common words. 2. Three cheers for the *red, white,* and *blue*! 3. The *French* were victorious. 4. The captain made a home *run.* 5. *Six* of the boys consented. 6. *Waiting* is tiresome, even in this cool *waiting*-room. 7. *To go* is better than *to perish.* 8. The tongue of the *just* is as choice silver. 9. Be *just* to your enemies. 10. It called, *just* then, a second time. 11. They say he lives in a *glass* house. 12. The *wandering* clouds go by. 13. Why do you drive so *fast*? 14. Oh, young

Lochinvar is come out of the *West*. 15. Call me *early*, for I must take an *early* train. 16. The *under* part next received attention. 17. The *last* shall be *first*. 18. He pitched an *in* curve. 19. He must be there by *now*. 20. Wait till the clouds roll *by*. 21. *Yonder* shepherd beckons. 22. Look *yonder*! 23. Try *hard* to break this *hard* stone. 24. Good-bye, proud world, I'm going *home*. 25. Please *black* the stove. 26. The *public* made known their wishes. 27. We walked *about* the garden. 28. The wind blew so *strong* that they turned *about* and walked the other *way*. 29. Who called *within*? 30. We shall be there *within* an hour. 31. I am *about through*. 32. Since *then*, we have been careful to lock the door. 33. Where shall you *house* your canoe, this winter? 34. The culprit was brought *before* the judge. 35. The judge had never seen him *before*. 36. He escaped *before* he had served his sentence. 37. Do not remain out *after* dark. 38. The *after* effects were unpleasant. 39. We purchased a *to let* sign. 40. I will come *after* I have finished my letter. 41. Slow *up*, please! 42. *That* is too bad. 43. *That* boy is an athlete. 44. The errand *that* we were to do is now unnecessary. 45. I think *that* we may go now. 46. Now what part of speech is the word *that*? 47. *My* ship rides at anchor. 48. *This* is *mine*. 49. *This* boy was called Leonidas. 50. Let *each* take *one*. 51. *Each* girl may take two. 52. *Whose* name was mentioned *first*? 53. The *one whose* name is called first must go. 54. *Who* calls? 55. He goes last who *once* was first. 56. Why are you *so* quiet? 57. The train was late, *so* we went for a walk. 58. *When* shall their glory fade! 59. *When* the cats are away, the mice will play. 60.

Why should we complain. 61. He asked *why* we were so merry. 62. Thank *her* for *her* kindness. 63. We have waited *since* eleven. 64. *Since* we must remain, let us make the best of it. 65. *Where* are the reapers? 66. Go *where* glory waits. 67. The stag at eve had drunk his *fill*. 68. We lost the way and had to *foot* it home.

VI. Write the plural forms of ally, alley, volley, valley, cry, lady, folly, fairy, gypsy, reply, turkey, pulley, galley, soliloquy, journey, attorney, chimney, colloquy, caddy, chief, dwarf, loaf, scarf, staff, cloth, wife, self, himself, myself, gulf, calf, roof, leaf, proof, motto, buffalo, domino, dynamo, cargo, veto, hero, portico, zero, potato, piano, echo, solo, tomato, alumna, alumnus, larva, formula, focus, nebula, phenomenon, stratum, bacterium, medium, erratum, dictum, oasis, antithesis, thesis, axis, analysis, crisis, parenthesis, hypothesis, corps, tableau, beau, genus, radius, Norman, Northman, Frenchman, German, merchantman, daughter-in-law, bill-of-fare, hanger-on, handful, James, Henry, Mary, Dr. Jones, Miss Stone, Mrs. Grundy, Mr. Grundy, Master Grundy, 6, m, +.

VII. Write the singular possessive forms of ally, alley, fairy, caddy, oasis, daughter-in-law, Mr. Grundy, I, you, he, she, it, who, Dickens, Jones, Wiggs, Themistocles, the King of England, Dickens and Thackeray (joint possession), Edward Clark, Esq., Byron and Scott (individual possession), Addison or Steele (as in the sentence This is ——— or ———), Keats, Holmes, Clarke the hardware merchant.

Write the plural possessive form of ally, alley, lady, fairy, caddy, hero, oasis, corps, beau, calf, daughter-in-law, they, Henry, Miss Stone, Jones, Wiggs, Dickens, King of Sweden.

Which of the two forms enclosed in parenthesis is correct? 1. Think of (me, my) asking such a question! 2. The (train, train's) being late resulted in (them, their) failing to make connections. 3. There is some talk of (Mr. Taylor's, Mr. Taylor) being made president. 4. What sense is there in a (boy, boy's) losing his temper! 5. I never heard of (him, his) doing anything cowardly.

VIII. The sentences below illustrate common errors in the use of pronouns and pronominal adjectives. Correct the errors, in each case telling why the pronoun as used is incorrect.

1. The contrast between he and Macbeth is marked. 2. Whom do they think I am? 3. Let's see who'll get there first, you or me. 4. If I were him, I'd accept the offer. 5. Everyone except she applauded the speaker. 6. Yourself and your family are invited to attend our opening Friday evening. 7. Who is you're friend? 8. We have been waiting this two hours. 9. Who'se to blame? 10. They must look out for theirselves. 11. Let he who standeth take heed lest he fall. 12. I am sure it was them. 13. He shot hisself accidentally. 14. Who are you going to invite? 15. I think it's wing is broken. 16. The weather will not permit of me staying out late. 17. Please pass me some of them grapes. 18. I know who I like and who I don't like better than him. 19. He was less clumsy than myself. 20. This isn't ourn; it must be theirn. 21. The three Clarke

boys and myself went in the automobile. 22. It must have been us you saw. 23. There is no use in me trying for the prize. 24. They called upon a man whom they thought would surely know all about it. 25. I wonder who he means. 26. It lies between you and I. 27. Why should we not enjoy what is our's? 28. The boat righted it's self instantly. 29. He allowed my brother and I to take his gun. 30. I think you are as tall as her. 31. Here is the gentleman who you wished to see. 32. Between you and I, the game was not won fairly. 33. Do you like these kind better? 34. I do not know who to turn to. 35. He is the one who I consider the strongest candidate. 36. Us girls have great larks. 37. I thought you said their were good boats. Are these them? 38. Neither John nor Arthur brought their lunch. 39. No one should allow themselves to be deceived. 40. When any one is going camping, they should take warm clothing.

IX. The simplest rule in sentence-building, and unquestionably the rule most frequently violated, states that a verb should agree with its subject in person and number. *He don't, you was, they was,* and *I says* are expressions commonly used even by those who think that they speak correctly. Point out the bare subject of each of the following sentences. Point out the bare predicate. Point out the error in agreement. Try to give a clear explanation of how, in all probability, the error came about. Was it due to failure to see that the subject was a collective noun or the plural form of a foreign term? Did the writer assume that *there,* coming immediately before the verb, was a substantive

in the singular number? Did he mistake for the subject some noun standing nearer the verb than the real subject? Did he forget that *with* is a preposition, not a conjunction?

1. In back of the grapes was two pineapples. 2. There was so many attending the game that we could not get a good seat. 3. If each of the boys are closely watched, the trick will soon be apparent. 4. First the girl's name is given, then follows her age and birthplace. 5. This house don't look quite as old-fashioned as the other. 6. Under these was two basket-balls and a pair of boxing-gloves. 7. On the north side is a door and two windows. 8. He don't know any better than to say *they aint*! 9. There was but two girls present. 10. The phenomena was most singular. 11. The papers tell where and when there is to be bargain sales. 12. Two of us remained at home, so there was but two to go in the boat. 13. The father with his three sons were saved. 14. Every one of the articles were sold. 15. There's no two ways about it! 16. Tales of a Wayside Inn were written by Longfellow. 17. Fifteen minutes were soon gone. 18. No one but Edward and George were absent. 19. It happened when you was away. 20. More than one has made the same mistake. 21. Quickness as well as strength are needed. 22. A hundred feet of hose were rapidly paid out. 23. To the captain and the manager of the team are due most of the credit. 24. We was having the time of our lives. 25. Honesty, as well as cleverness, count. 26. Two-thirds of the roof were shingled before the rain fell. 27. My favorite study are mathematics. 28. The binding of the books were insecure. 29. Home, with all its

many comforts, were soon forgotten. 30. I says "walk"; he says "ride". 31. On the platform even with the sill is three cages. 32. Thirty thousand dollars were paid for the mansion. 33. Each of the sticks were given a coat of walnut stain. 34. Was you surprised to see your mother? 35. Which of the two boys were John? 36. It will clear before eleven; you see if it don't.

X. Learn the following table so thoroughly that if a principal part of any verb be given you can without hesitation supply the remaining parts. Words starred are of the new or weak conjugation.

arise	arose	arisen	awake	awoke	awaked
bear	bore *or* bare	born *or* borne	beat	beat	beaten
			begin	began	begun
bend *	bent	bent	bid	bade *or* bid	bidden
bite	bit	bitten			
break	broke	broken	bring *	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst	choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung	come	came	come
cost *	cost	cost	do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn	drive	drove	driven
drink	drank	drunk	drown *	drowned	drowned
eat	ate *or* eat	eaten	fight	fought	fought
flee *	fled	fled	fling	flung	flung
flow *	flowed	flowed	fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden	forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen	give	gave	given
go	went	gone	grow	grew	grown
hear *	heard	heard	hit *	hit	hit
hurt *	hurt	hurt	knit *	knit	knit
lay *	laid	lain	lead *	led	led
leap *	leapt	leapt	let *	let	let
lie	lay	lain	lie *	lied	lied

loose *	loosed	loosed	lose *	lost	lost
put *	put	put	rid *	rid	rid
run	ran	run	see	saw	seen
set *	set	set	shrink *	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung	sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain	sling	slung	slung
speak	spoke	spoken	spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen	string	strung	strung
swear	swore	sworn	swim	swam	swum
tear	tore	torn	think *	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown	wake	waked *	waked *
wear	wore	worn		*or* woke	
wet *	wet	wet	wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written			

XI. Notice that there are no such forms as *brung, busted, costed, drownded, growed, hitted, hurted, runned, swored, swimmed, wored.* Write sentences in which the past tense and past participle forms of the following verbs are used: *bring, burst, cost, drown, grow, hit, hurt, run, wear, swim, swear.*

XII. Give the active and passive past perfect of *beat;* the active past, simple and progressive forms, of *begin;* the passive past progressive of *bite;* all the infinitives and participles of *bring;* the active past of *come, eat,* and *fling;* the passive past progressive of *hear;* the active past progressive of *lie* (to recline); the active potential past of *see;* the active present and past subjunctive of *sing;* the participles of *swim;* the active present progressive of *slay;* the passive present progressive of *slay;* the active simple future of *write.* Give a synopsis (all first person forms in all moods and tenses, all imperative, infinitive, and participial forms) of *love.*

L. OF C.

Conjugate *work* in the active progressive. Conjugate in full the verb *help*.

XIII. Which of the verbs found in Exercise X are always used transitively? intransitively? Which may be used either way?

XIV. *Lie* and *sit* are intransitive verbs; *lay* and *set* are transitive. Supply the correct forms in the following sentences:

1. The tree has ——— there many years. 2. Let the book ——— where it is. 3. I think I have ——— here long enough. 4. We ——— at anchor till the storm blew over. 5. In which direction does our camp ———? 6. The grounds were beautifully ——— out. 7. When the culprits were caught, they ——— the blame on others. 8. Speckle has ——— an egg in the box that ——— by the stable door. 9. I think the town now ——— to the east. 10. Will you not ——— down? 11. He said that he would ——— down for a while; so we ——— his blankets in the shade. 12. His only fault, they said, ——— in the one word ambition. 13. Where the tree falleth, there must it ———.

1. He was ——— in the ——— -room. 2. We had ——— up most of the night. 3. After the sun had ———, the air grew chilly. 4. Please ——— down a minute. 5. After we had ——— there a long time, the door opened. 6. The house, he said, ——— back a little from the street. 7. Old wives a-sunning ———. 8. The little bird ——— at his door in the sun.

XV. Complete the following sentences by inserting *was* and *were* where needed, in each case giving a reason for your choice. Remember that the indicative is used to denote simple condition in past time, the subjunctive *were* to denote a mere supposition or to present a state of affairs contrary to fact.

1. We looked to see if it ——— still raining. 2. If he ——— coming, he would be here now. 3. If he ——— tardy, he should bring an excuse. 4. If I ——— you, I should start at once. 5. Would that it ——— true! 6. If he ——— asked, he would come. 7. If he ——— asked, I knew nothing of it. 8. I wish that I ——— with you. 9. If he ——— strong, we should take him with us. 10. If it ——— true then, it must be true now. 11. He would seem stern ——— it not for a twinkle in his eye. 12. If it ——— he, I failed to recognize him. 13. Suppose you ——— asked to go; what should you say? 14. We used the cottage as freely as if it ——— our own. 15. Why, man, if the river ——— dry, I am able to fill it with my tears; if the wind ——— down, I could drive the boat with my sighs.

16. Love Virtue; she alone is free.
    She can teach you how to climb
    Higher than the spiry chime;
    Or, if Virtue feeble ———,
    Heaven itself would stoop to her.—*Milton.*

XVI. Supply *shall* or *will*, whichever is correct, in each of the following sentences:

1. I ——— hope to see you often. 2. I am determined that he ——— have a pleasant time. 3. If you

——— call at eight, you ——— find me at home. 4. I ——— be greatly obliged if you ——— bring the books with you. 5. We know that we ——— have to work hard, but we think it ——— do us no harm. 6. John is determined that he ——— be first. 7. John tells me that he ——— be able to join the party.* 8. He writes that he ——— be sixteen to-morrow. 9. If you go, I ——— want to go too. 10. I think we ——— be asked to remain. 11. The weather forecaster says that we ——— have a fair day to-morrow. 12. I think we ——— see land before night. 13. ——— you be able to accompany us? 14. When ——— we reach Dallas? 15. ——— we have time to purchase tickets? 16. What ——— I do if it rains? 17. ——— you be sorry to see the snow come? 18. How ——— I know where to go? 19. ——— we be permitted to take books home? 20. ——— there be a bonfire, do you think? 21. ——— they know which road to take?

XVII. Show very clearly that the meaning of each of the following sentences changes according as *shall* or *will* is supplied.

1. ——— you attend the concert? 2. We ——— not disappoint you. 3. There ——— be no laughter. 4. ——— they wait for us? 5. He ——— read the book. 6. ——— he provide lunch? 7. I ——— be king. 8. I ——— drown, if you do not help me. 9. He ——— drown, if you do not help him. 10. You ——— drown, if no one helps you. 11. We ———

* Where *shall* would be used in direct discourse, use *shall* in indirect discourse; where *will* would be used, use *will* in the indirect.

reach New York before eight. 12. I ——— contribute ten dollars. 13. ——— you try for honors? 14. He reports that the train ——— wait for us.

XVIII. Supply *should* and *would* where the sense requires in the following sentences:

1. I ——— like to help you, and I ——— if I could. 2. I hoped that I ——— not be asked. 3. I know I ——— enjoy golf, but I think I ——— prefer tennis. 4. I ——— be afraid to ride such a spirited horse. 5. If you will permit me, I ——— like to add a word. 6. If you rescued the crew, you ——— be rewarded. 7. He said that I ——— go if there was room. 8. He asked if I ——— take him too. 9. I ——— be sorry to see him fail. 10. I ——— send him aid if I thought he would accept it. 11. What ——— we do with a white elephant if we had one? 12. I thought I ——— fail. 13. If you ——— speak to him, he ——— give you a courteous answer. 14. Had I been in his position, I ——— have done the same. 15. We planned that he ——— go by train. 16. If you ——— be in town, we ——— be pleased to have you call. 17. He promised that the next lesson ——— be better prepared. 18. He thought that he ——— find it. 19. We returned it lest he ——— think it had been stolen. 20. He thought he ——— be forced to tell the secret, in spite of all he could do. 21. Had we delayed a moment longer, we ——— have lost everything.

XIX. Show clearly that each sentence changes in meaning according as *may* or *can* is supplied:

1. ——— I help you? 2. ——— we tell all that we

know? 3. ——— we not find our way back to the boat? 4. He says you ——— go. 5. ——— we have the pleasure of your company? 6. What more ——— be done? 7. This ——— not be done; it is against the rules.

8. Now my task is lightly done,
I ——— fly and I ——— run.

XX. Tell very clearly why each of the following sentences is incorrect:

1. He thinks he must of left it in the train. 2. This was the first time I was ever elected to office. 3. I should be pleased if he will call at my home. 4. Do you know when he come to town? 5. We done the best we could. 6. They, thinking him to have been with the others, did not worry about his absence. 7. You had ought to have seen us! 8. It was enough to have discouraged any one. 9. I intended to have written long ago. 10. If I permit you to go, I should have to ask you to return before nine. 11. I am not sure where they went, but I think they may have went shopping. 12. They must have forgot all about it. 13. When the storm broke, we all run for shelter. 14. Probably they would have drove on for another hour, had not darkness overtaken them. 15. We were to have sailed yesterday. 16. Don't it look dark!

XXI. Point out the connectives and tell what part of speech each connective is. Which ones do double duty, serving not only as connectives but as modifiers or substantives? Which of the conjunctions are coordinate and which are subordinate?

1. He who hesitates is lost. 2. We sailed above the clouds. 3. Time and tide wait for no man. 4. Neither this nor that is precisely what I wish; but I will take a little of each unless you can show me something else. 5. Notwithstanding the weight of the anchor, the yacht continued to drift. 6. Let him who standeth take heed lest he fall. 7. Underneath his faults were virtues little dreamed of. 8. Let us accept whatever comes and be of good cheer. 9. Although we have failed twice, a third time we may succeed. 10. Before breakfast, take a brisk walk through the fields. 11. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. 12. I go where the winds take me. 13. Do you know why the harebell hangs its head? 14. We do not know whether to go or to remain; but since it matters little which we do, we will decide the matter by lot. 15. If thou faint in the day of adversity, thy strength is small. 16. Can you imagine what has happened that the train is so late? 17. Though he fall, he shall not be utterly cast down. 18. I do not see how we could have missed our way. 19. Between the hills lay a peaceful valley through which ran a sober little stream. 20. The undertaking is hazardous; still all may go well provided we are careful. 21. Notwithstanding all that has been said, the prisoner is blameless. 22. Throughout the night came cries of distress from many quarters. 23. All except honor is lost. 24. Therefore, since the whole is equal to the sum of all its parts, the angle A equals the angle B. 25. Wait till you have heard both sides.

XXII. Point out the errors in the following sentences:
1. We had neither food or shelter. 2. I got this book

off of James. 3. The reason we did this was because we knew no better. 4. I am not sure but what we had better go now. 5. We arrived at about six in the evening. 6. He says he don't want no dinner. 7. We have no money nor no means of procuring it. 8. He looks like he was lame. 9. How nicely this tastes! 10. He has an italian accent. 11. Can you not make it a little rounder at the top and squarer at the base? And make this edge a little straighter. 12. It will not rain before noon, I don't think. 13. We reached shore easy enough. 14. He returned in a very different spirit than he once had. 15. Would he not comply to your wishes? 16. No sooner had she said this when she began to cry. 17. Strike out boldly like me! 18. This is very different than what we expected. 19. It was not as bad as we expected. 20. Like as not we'll meet them. 21. This is very pretty, but I think the other more preferable. 22. Any one would have done the same had he been frightened like John was. 23. As quick as the twigs kindle, put on the heavier wood. 24. Now pour enough water in the pan to cover the dishes. 25. These kind are hard to catch. 26. A dollar doesn't last long when divided between six hungry boys. 27. I don't know as I can say much more, gentlemen. 28. I shall be unable to go without I get my lessons first. 29. By eight we were near starved. 30. Scarcely had we fallen asleep than the fire-bell began to ring.

XXIII. Analyzing a sentence means taking it to pieces and pointing out how its parts are related. First we should tell whether the sentence is simple, compound, or complex. If it is compound, the clauses

should be pointed out and the word or words connecting them; if complex, the principal clause should be pointed out first, then the subordinate members. Next we should analyze each clause, pointing out subject and predicate and the modifiers of each. Analyze the sentences in exercises I, II, III, IV, and XXI.

XXIV. Parsing a word means telling (1) what part of speech it is, (2) what inflected form it represents, (3) how it is used, (4) what rule it obeys. The things to be told of the different parts of speech are as follows:

Noun: Kind (common or proper), number, gender, case, how used, rule.

Pronoun: Kind (personal, relative, demonstrative, interrogative, or indefinite), antecedent if the pronoun is a relative, gender if it is a personal pronoun, person if it is a personal or relative pronoun, number, case, how used, rule.

Adjective: Kind (article, numeral, pronominal; common or proper), degree if the adjective can be compared, how used.

Verb: Kind (transitive or intransitive), conjugation (old or new), principal parts, voice, mode, tense, person, number, rule.

Adverb: Kind (simple, conjunctive, expletive, responsive), degree if the adverb can be compared, how used.

Preposition: The word it governs, the words between which it shows relation.

Conjunction: Kind (coördinate or subordinate), the words, phrases or clauses it connects.

Interjection: Definition.

Infinitive or Participle: To what verb it belongs, voice, tense, how used.

Parse each word found in exercises I, II, III, IV, and XXI.

XXV. Analyze the following sentences and parse each word:

1. Geography explains history. 2. Death lays his icy hands on kings. 3. Unto the pure all things are pure. 4. And when his armour-bearer saw that Saul was dead, he fell likewise on the sword and died. 5. Heaven lies about us in our infancy. 6. A man without a sense of humor, some one has said, is occasionally to be respected, often to be feared, and nearly always to be avoided. 7. Facts in the mind, says Sir Oliver Lodge, are not dead things in a portmanteau; they are live things in a pond. 8. Truth makes all things plain. 9. Patience is bitter but its fruit is sweet. 10. A good name is better than a girdle of gold. 11. Labor rids us of three great evils: tediousness, vice, and poverty. 12. In vain do you lead the ox to the water, if he is not thirsty. 13. Many generations have come and gone since the little Mayflower lay rocking in yonder bay, with the Pilgrim mothers and sisters looking out wistfully over the then lonely waters, and the children, cooped up for many a weary week, asking when at last they would be put on shore. 14. A wise man thinks before he speaks; but a fool speaks and then thinks of what he has been saying. 15. Disputes would not continue so long, if the wrong lay but on one side. 16. It avails little to know what ought to be done, if you do

not know how it is to be done. 17. The most original modern authors, says Goethe, are not so because they advance what is new, but simply because they know how to put what they have to say, as if it had never been said before. 18. As soon as the house was full and the candles lighted, my old friend stood up and looked about him with that pleasure which a mind seasoned with humanity naturally feels in itself at the sight of a multitude of people who seem pleased with one another and partake of the same common enjoyment. 19. We remain shackled by timidity till we have learned to speak with propriety. 20. The earth opens her bosom to receive impartially the beggar and the prince. 21. I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death! 22. The planter, who is *man* sent out into the field to gather food, is seldom cheered by any idea of the true dignity of his ministry. He sees his bushel and his cart and nothing beyond, and sinks into the farmer instead of the *man* on the farm. 23. It is a pleasing sight, of a Sunday morning, when the bell is sending its sober melody across the quiet fields, to behold the peasantry in their best finery, with ruddy faces and modest cheerfulness, thronging tranquilly along the green lanes to church; but it is still more pleasing to see them in the evenings, gathered about their cottage doors and appearing to exult in the humble comforts and embellishments which their own hands have spread around them. 24. After these words, the dragon, awful monster, flashing with blazing flames, came on all wroth a second time to meet his hated foemen.

XXVI. Analyze the following sentences and parse each word:

1. The moon was afloat
Like a golden boat
On the sea-blue depths of the sky
When the miller of Dee
With his children three
On his fat, red horse rode by.

2 Who lacks the art to shape his thought, I hold,
Were little poorer if he lacked the thought.
—*Aldrich.*

3. The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones.
—*Shakespeare.*

4. Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow;
He who would search for pearls must dive below.
—*Dryden.*

5. The stars look very cold about the sky,
And I have many miles on foot to fare.—*Keats.*

6. I read whatever bards have sung
Of lands beyond the sea;
And the bright days when I was young
Come thronging back to me.—*Longfellow.*

7. In Xanadu did Kubla Khan
A stately pleasure-dome decree
Where Alph, the sacred river, ran
Through caverns measureless to man
Down to a sunless sea.—*Coleridge.*

8. In the moonlight the shepherds,
Soft lulled by the rills,
Lie wrapt in their blankets,
Asleep on the hills.—*Arnold.*

9. Yonder in the heather there's a bed for sleeping,
Drink for one athirst, ripe blackberries to eat;
Yonder in the sun the merry hares go leaping,
And the pool is clear for travel-weary feet.
—*Ada Smith.*

10. The hare limped trembling through the frozen grass;
And silent was the flock in woolly fold;
Numb were the Beadsman's fingers while he told
His rosary, and while his frosted breath,
Like pious incense from a censer old,
Seemed taking flight for heaven, without a death,
Past the sweet Virgin's picture, while his prayer he saith.—*Keats.*

11. While you converse with lords and dukes,
I have their betters here—my books;
Fixed in an elbow-chair at ease,
I choose companions as I please.
I'd rather have one single shelf
Than all my friends, except yourself;
For, after all that can be said,
Our best acquaintances are the dead.—*Sheridan.*

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